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THE

ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS

IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT





ESSENTIAL USES OF THE MOODS

IN GREEK AND LATIN

SET FORTH IN

PARALLEL ARRANGEMENT /

By ROBERT $P_{\cdot}^{\hat{i}}$ KEEP.

REVISED EDITION.

Εὐμνημόνευτα όσα τάξιν τινὰ έχει.
Απιστοτίε, περὶ μνήμης.

BOSTON, U.S.A.:

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PREFACE.

THIS pamphlet was first issued in 1879. A second edition was called for in 1882. From that time there was an unabated demand for the book until 1889, when a part of the plates were melted in a fire. Various causes delayed the preparation of a new edition until last summer, when the author was so fortunate as to secure the aid of Professor J. C. Rolfe of Michigan University, to whom the modifications and improvements in the pamphlet are almost wholly due. Among the additions may be mentioned full references to the Latin and Greek grammars in general use. It is hoped that the pamphlet may by this means be brought into closer relation to the pupil's grammars, and that he may be led to refer more frequently to the grammar for fuller treatment of essential principles.

ROBERT PORTER KEEP.

NORWICH FREE ACADEMY, Norwich, Conn., February, 1891.

CLASSIFICATION

Α.

INDEPENDENT
SENTENCES.
These of three
kinds:

B.

DEPENDENT
SENTENCES.
These of three
kinds:

Substantive Clauses, i.e. those which stand as the subject or object of some verb, include clauses of:

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES . . .

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES, i.e. those which modify the principal verb like an adverb, are of six kinds:

OF SENTENCES.

- I. STATEMENT.
- II. QUESTION.
 (Interrogative Sentence.)
- III. COMMAND.
 (Imperative Sentence.)
 - I. Indirect Statement.
- II. Indirect Question.
- III. INDIRECT REQUEST.
- . . RELATIVE CLAUSES.
- I. FINAL.
- II. Consecutive.
- III. CAUSAL.
- IV. CONDITIONAL
- V. CONCESSIVE.
- VI. TEMPORAL.

- 1. Positive Assertion.
- 2. Qualified Assertion.
- 1. Question for Information. (Single or Double.)
- 2. Deliberative or Dubitative Question.
- I. Command.
- 2. Exhortation
- 3. Wish.

These include all varieties of Indirect Quotation, or Oratio Obliqua.

Very frequently in Greek, and less commonly in Latin, a participle may be the equivalent of a relative clause, or of an adverbial clause in any of its varieties.

SYNTAX OF

A.-USES OF MOODS IN

LATIN.

L. Direct Statement. A. 264. H. 474. 1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

Homō vēnit.

The man came.

Subjunctive of Modesty.
A. 311. b.
H. 486. 1.
G. 250.

2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the subjunctive.

Tū velim sīc exīstimēs.

I should like to have you to think so.

Vellem adesset Antōnius.

I could wish Antony were here.

Pāce tuā dīxerim.

I would say by your leave.

The subjunctive is used to denote an action not as real, but as possible.

Quaerat quispiam.

Some one may ask.

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Potential Subjunctive. A. 311. a. H. 485. G. 250.

THE MOODS.

INDEPENDENT SENTENCES.

GREEK.

1. Direct Statement. G. 213. I. H. 865. G. 257. H. 1032. G. M. 294. 6.

1. Direct statement is made by the indicative.

ό ἀνὴρ ἢλθεν.

The man came.

REM. — Emphatic denial is made by the aorist subjunctive, or rarely by the future indicative, preceded by οὐ μτ΄.

ού μη παύσωμαι.

I shall never cease.

οὖ σοι μὴ μεθέψομαί ποτε. I will not follow you.

Potential Optative. G. 226. 2. b H. 872. 2. Qualified or modest assertion is made by the optative with $\tilde{a}\nu$; negative, $o\hat{\nu}$.

βουλοίμην ἄν.

I should wish.

ούκ αν έλθοι.

He would not come.

2. Direct Question.A. 210. a.b.
H. 351. 1.
G. 455 fol.

REM. — The subjunctive of modesty and the potential subjunctive are really forms of apodosis (see 18). The protasis may sometimes be supplied, but was often not present to the mind of the speaker.

1. Questions, single or double, are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or, rarely, are indicated only by the mark of interrogation (?), and are expressed by the indicative.

Quid vis?

What do you want?

Ubinam habitās?

Where do you live?

Quaerō servōsne an līberōs.

I ask whether slaves or free.

A. 210. c. H. 351. 1. Notes 1. 2. and 3. G. 456-8. REM. I.—No (enclitic), appended to the emphatic word, merely asks for information; nonno expects the answer yes; num expects the answer no.

A. 211. a.b. H. 353. 1. 2. Notes 3 and 4. G. 460. REM. 2.—In double questions utrum or -ne, whether, stands in the first member; an, anne, or, annon, necne, or not, in the second. Of the two last, annon is more common in direct questions, necne in indirect. The interrogative particle is often omitted in the first member, and sometimes the first member itself is omitted or implied.

Doubtful Question. A. 268. H. 484. V. G. 468. 2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the subjunctive is used, in all tenses.

Quid faciam?

What am I to do?

(3)

REM. — The potential optative is really the apodosis of a less vivid future condition. The protasis may sometimes be supplied, but was often not present to the mind of the speaker.

2. Direct Question. G. 282. 1. H. 1015. a.

1. Questions, single or double, are introduced by interrogative pronouns and adverbs, or are indicated by the mark of interrogation (;), and are expressed by the indicative.

τί θέλεις:

What do you want?

ποῦ οἰκεῖς;

Where do you live?

 $\eta\lambda\theta\epsilon_{S}$;

Did you come?

πότερον έξες ἄρχειν ἡ ἄλλον καθίστης;

Do you allow him to rule or do you appoint another?

G. 282. 2. H. 1015. REM. I. — Common interrogative particles are: doa and η, which ask for information; doa où, où, oŭκουν, άλλο τι (η), πῶς où, which expect the answer yes; doa μη, μη, which, in a question, expect the answer no.

G. 282. 5. H. 1017. REM. 2. — Double questions, both direct and indirect, may be introduced by πότερον (πότερο) ... η. Indirect double questions may also be introduced by εί... η, είτε ... είτε, or είτε ... η.

Doubtful Question. G. 256. H. 866. 3. 2. In questions implying doubt as to the possibility or propriety of an action (dubitative or deliberative questions), the first, sometimes the third, person of the subjunctive is used; negative, $\mu \dot{\eta}$.

τί ποιήσω;

What am I to do?

LATIN.

Quid de eo homine dicam?

What am I to say concerning that man?

Quid facerem?

What was I to do?

3. Direct Command. A. 269. H. 487. G. 259. 1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood.

Curre, currite.

Run.

Fac hoc.

Do this.

NOTE. — The second and third persons of the present subjunctive are frequently used to express command; the former, however, only when a command is addressed to an indefinite person.

A. 266, and a. H. 484. iv, with note 2. G. 256. 2. 3.

Doceās iter.

Show us the way.

Hōc faciat.

Let him do this.

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, addressed to a definite person, is expressed in three ways: —

A. 266. b. H. 484. iv. note 1. G. 266. (a) by **nē** with the perfect subjunctive.

Në hoc feceris.

Do not do this.

A. 269. a. H. 489. G. 264. II.

- (b) by noli or nolite with the infinitive.
 Noli hoe facere, nolite hoe facere.
- (c) by cave or cavēte with the present or perfect subjunctive, with or without nē.

Cave në hōc faciās.

(5)

τί εἶπω περὶ ἐκείνου τοῦ ἀνδρός;

What am I to say concerning that man?

NOTE. — The subjunctive of doubt is frequently joined with β oύλει, θ έλεις, κ . τ . λ .

βούλει βούλεσθε θέλεις θέλετε

Do you wish that we should go away?

Direct Command. G. 252. H. 873. 1. Command is expressed by the imperative mood: by the present imperative, if the command is general; by the aorist imperative, if it is particular.

σπούδαζε.

Be diligent (always).

ποίησον τοῦτο.

Do this (particular thing).

φεῦγε.

Begone!

REM. — Prohibition, or negative command, is expressed by μη with the present imperative, if the prohibition is general; by μη with the second (rarely third) singular or plural agrist subjunctive, if the prohibition is particular.

μη κλέπτε.

Do not steal (habitually), or, Do not be a thief.

μὴ κλέψης.

Do not steal (some particular thing).

G. 254. H. 874, and a.

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LATIN.

NOTE. — The Present Imperative in negative commands occurs only in early Latin and in poetry. General prohibitions (i.e. prohibitions addressed to no definite person) are regularly expressed by the present subjunctive with nē.

Exhortation. A. 266. H. 483. G. 256. 2. Exhortation is expressed by the subjunctive; negative ne.

Eāmus.

Let us go.

Nē hōc faciant.

Let them not do this.

Wish.
A. 267, with b.
H. 483. 1 and 2.
G. 253, 254.

3. The subjunctive is used to express a wish. If attainable, the wish is expressed by the present; if unaccomplished in present time, by the imperfect; if unaccomplished in past time, by the pluperfect; negative regularly, nē. The subjunctive is often preceded by the particles uti (ut), utinam, or ō sī.

Hīs Dī grātiam referant!

These may the Gods requite!

Utinam tum tibi në adfuissem!

Would that I had not then been present!

Utinam Cyrus viveret!

Would that Cyrus were alive!

REM. — The perfect subjunctive in a wish occurs only in early Latin.

(7)

Exhortation. G. 253. H. 866. 1. 2. Exhortation is expressed by the first plural of the subjunctive; negative $\mu \dot{\eta}$.

ἴωμεν.

Let us go.

μη τοῦτο ποιῶμεν.
Let us not do this.

Wisk. G. 251. 1 and 2. H. 870, and a. 871, and a. 3. Wish, conceived as attainable, is expressed by the optative, with or without $\epsilon i\theta \epsilon$ or $\epsilon i \gamma \alpha \rho$; negative $\mu \dot{\eta}$; as unattainable, by the past tenses of the indicative with $\epsilon i\theta \epsilon$ or $\epsilon i \gamma \alpha \rho$, or by the aorist $\dot{\omega} \phi \epsilon \lambda o \nu$ with an infinitive.

τούτους μέν οἱ θ εοὶ ἀποτίσαιντο. These may the Gods requite!

είθε σοι τότε μη συνεγενόμην. Would that I had not then been present!

εὶ γὰρ τοσαύτην δύναμιν εἶχον. O that I had so great power!

*Ωφελε Κῦρος ζῆν.
Would that Cyrus were alive!

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B.—USES OF MOODS IN

LATIN.

Classification of Tenses. A. 285. G. 510. A. 287.a. and e. H. 495. I. and II. G. 511. with Rem. Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, perfect, and pluperfect.

REM. 1. The perfect is ordinarily a secondary tense, but allows the primary sequence when the present time is clearly in the writer's mind. The historical present allows either sequence, but is usually followed by secondary tenses.

REM. 2. Instead of Primary and Secondary, the terms Principal and Historical, or Present and Past, are sometimes used.

The Latin observes sequence of *tense*; that is, the tense of the subordinate clause corresponds to that of the principal sentence.

Sequence of Tenses. A. 286. H. 491. G. 510. Primary tenses regularly follow primary; secondary tenses regularly follow secondary.

Dā mihi illum librum ut accipiam.

Give me that book that I may take it.

Illum librum mihi dedit ut acciperem.

He gave me that book that I might take it.

REM. — The law of the "Sequence of Tenses," as here stated, is not invariable. Many so-called exceptions occur. After a secondary tense the perfect is often found in clauses of result. The imperfect and pluperfect subjunctive in conditions contrary to fact are not affected by the rule.

DEPENDENT SENTENCES.

GREEK.

4. Classification of Tenses. G. 90. 2. H. 301. Tenses are classed as Primary and Secondary. Primary: present, perfect, future, and future perfect. Secondary: imperfect, aorist, and pluperfect.

In Greek, the sequence is rather of mood than of tense; *i.e.* the *mood* of the dependent clause is often influenced by the tense of the principal verb. This principle holds good only in certain cases hereafter described, especially in final clauses (15), and may be stated as follows:—

5. Sequence of Moods. G. 201. The subjunctive is the regular attendant of primary tenses; the optative (hence called also historical subjunctive), of secondary tenses.

δός μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἴνα λάβω. Give me that book that I may take it.

ἔδωκέ μοι ἐκεῖνο τὸ βιβλίον ἴνα λάβοιμι. He gave me that book that I might take it.

REM. — The use of the optative after secondary tenses is in all cases optional. The subjunctive may always be retained for vividness.

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Classification of Sub-

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows: —

II. Indirect Question.

I. Indirect Statement. all forms of Indirect Question. Quotation, or Oratio

III. Indirect Request.

REM. I. - The term Indirect Discourse, Oratio Obliqua, is applied to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as the thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in the form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; but in indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause.

REM. 2. - Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of certain verbs. They are, properly, object-clauses when the leading verb is in the active voice; yet they may follow certain verbs and expressions which are not strictly transitive, i.e. which do not take after them a noun in the objective case.

REM. 3. - When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the substantive clause will regularly become its subject.

indirect

1. The regular form of the indirect statement, after verbs of feeling, thinking, and declaring, is the accusative with the infinitive.

Dīxit Xenophontem imperatorem esse.

He said that Xenophon was general.

6.
Classification of Substantive

SUBSTANTIVE CLAUSES.

Substantive clauses, or clauses which are the subject or the object of some verb, are classified as follows:—

- I. Indirect Statement.
- II. Indirect Question.
- III. Indirect Request.

Here are included all forms of Indirect Quotation, or Oratio Obliqua.

REM. I.—The term Indirect Discourse, Oratio Obliqua, is applied to what is reported, but not formally quoted, as the saying or as the thought of a person. It is what in direct discourse would be in the form of a declaration, or a question, or a command or request; but in indirect discourse takes the form of a subordinate clause.

REM. 2. — Substantive clauses have been defined as clauses which (like a substantive) are the subject or object of certain verbs. They are, properly, object-clauses when the leading verb is in the active voice; yet they may follow certain verbs and expressions which are not strictly transitive, i.e. which do not take after them a noun in the objective case.

REM. 3.— When the leading verb is in the passive voice, the substantive clause will regularly become its subject.

Indirect Statement: how expressed. G. 241. 2. H. 046. r. A regular form of the indirect statement, after verbs of *feeling*, thinking, and declaring, is the accusative with the infinitive; but the nominative usually takes the place of the accusative when the latter would repeat the subject of the principal verb.

έφη Εενοφωντα στρατηγόν είναι. He said that Xenophon was general.

Ξενοφῶν ἔφη αὐτὸς στρατηγὸς εἶναι.

Xenophon said that he himself was general.

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A. 330. f. G. 424. Rem. 3. REM. — Verbs of hoping, promising, and undertaking regularly take the future infinitive with the subject-accusative, but sometimes the present.

Promisit se venturum esse.

He promised that he would come.

Pollicentur obsides dare (Caes. B. G. iv. 21).

They promise to give hostages.

A. 332. a. 2. H. 501. I. 1. G. 558. 3. 2. After impersonal verbs such as it happens, it is expedient, it remains, it follows (e.g. accidit, fierī solet, expedit, restat, sequitur, etc.), the substantive clause takes the form of ut with the subjunctive.

Expedit ut Rōmae sim.

It is expedient that I be at Rome.

GREEK.

NOTE. — By the use of the nominative or accusative, the Greek regularly indicates whether the subject of the infinitive is the same as that of the principal verb, or not.

ἔφη αὐτός, οὐκ ἐκείνον, στρατηγείν. He said that he himself, not that man, was commander.

G. 203. Note 2. H. 948. a. REM. — Verbs of promising, hoping, expecting, etc., take either the future infinitive or the present and acrist,

ὑπέσχετό μοι τοῦτο ποιήσειν. He promised me that he would do this.

α οὖποτε ἤλπισεν παθεῖν. What he never expected to suffer.

G. 241. 2. H. 932. 2. Equally common in Greek with the accusative with infinitive after verbs of saying, thinking, etc., is the substantive clause introduced by $\delta \tau \iota$ or $\dot{\omega} \varsigma$. The verb of the substantive clause is in the indicative after a primary tense; in the optative (generally) after a secondary tense.

olda ori $\beta a \sigma i \lambda \epsilon \hat{v}_s$ an $\epsilon \theta a \nu \epsilon \nu$.

I know that the king died.

ήδειν ότι βασιλεύς μαχόμενος ἀποθάνοι (ἀπέθανεν).

I knew that the king died fighting.

G. 242. b. H. 933. REM. I.—The indicative may at any time be employed after a secondary tense when it is desired, for the sake of vividness, to approach the original language of the speaker.

G. 260. 2. Note 1. H. 946. b. REM. 2.—Of the three common verbs of saying, φημί regularly takes the infinitive; λέγω may take ὅτι οι ὡς; εἶπου always takes ὅτι οι ὡς, except when it signifies bid.

LATIN.

A. 331. i. H. 501. i. 1. G. 535. Rems. 1 and 2. 3. The impersonals licet and oportet take as subject either a substantive clause in the subjunctive, with or without ut, or an infinitive with or without a subject accusative.

Licet mē īre.

It is allowed me to go.

Sint enim oportet.

They must exist.

REM. I. — ut is regularly omitted with oportet.

REM. 2. — Clauses in the subjunctive after the verbs mentioned in 2 and 3 are often called substantive clauses of purpose or result.

A. 333. H. 540. 4. G. 542. 4. A peculiar form of substantive clause consists of **quod** causal with the indicative.

After verbs of emotion, gaudeo, doleo, etc., the substantive clause often takes this form, although the accusative with the infinitive may be used.

Gaudeō quod domum tūtus rediit.

I am glad that he has returned home safe.

A. 333. a. H. 516. II. 2 Note. G. 525. REM. — In colloquial language the substantive clause with **quod** is sometimes used as an accusative of specification, corresponding to the English *whereas*.

Reperiëbat etiam in quaerendo Caesar quod proclium equestre adversum paucis ante diebus esset factum.

Cæsar found out, on inquiry, about the unsuccessful cavalry skirmish of a few days before (lit. as to the fact that an unsuccessful cavalry skirmish had taken place a few days before).

(15)

G. 134. Note 2. H. 949.

3. The impersonal expressions $\delta \circ \kappa : \hat{\iota}$, it seems good, $\delta \in \hat{\iota}$, $\chi \rho \eta$, it is necessary, $\check{\epsilon} \sigma \tau \iota$, it is possible, $\check{\epsilon} \not{\epsilon} e \sigma \tau \iota$, it is permitted, etc., take an infinitive clause as subject.

έξεστί μοι ιέναι.

It is allowed me to go.

G. 279. 2. H. 982. 4. Verbs of feeling, knowing, judging, — e.g. $ai\sigma\theta \acute{a}\nu o\mu a\iota$, olda, $\mu \acute{\epsilon}\mu\nu\eta\mu a\iota$, — are more commonly followed by a participle than by the accusative with the infinitive. This participle is called a supplementary participle.

οἶδά σε κακὸν ὄντα. I know that you are cowardly.

οίδα κακὸς ὧν.
I know that I am cowardly.

REM. - With the infinitive the meaning is different.

οίδα κακός είναι.

I know how to be a coward.

Use of Moods in Indirect Statement. (Subordinate Clauses.) A. 336. 2. H. 524. G. 653.

General Principle governing the Use of Moods in Clauses of Secondary Dependence in Indirect Discourse.

Clauses that are dependent on a proposition in Indirect Discourse employ the subjunctive.

REM. — The dependent clauses, the verbs of which thus pass into the subjunctive, may be of the following varieties: —

- 1. Interrogative clauses (cf. Rule 9), yet rhetorical questions may employ the infinitive.
 - 2. Imperative clauses.
- 3. Relative clauses, whether introduced by relatives or relative adverbs.
 - 4. Adverbial clauses in their different varieties (cf. Rule 13).

DIRECT STATEMENT.

Ego parātus sum: --

quid vultis? Nē dubitāte apertē dīcere ea quae in animō habētis.

Sī pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiīs faciet, in eam partem *ībunt* atque ibi erunt Helvētiī, ubi eōs Caesar cōnstituerit atque esse voluerit: sīn bellō persequī persevērābit, reminīscere (inquit) et veteris incommodī populī Rōmānī et prīstinae virtūtis Helvētiōrum.

INDIRECT STATEMENT.

[Dīcit] sē parātum esse:—
quid velint (1)? ne dubitent
(2) apertē dicere ea quae in
animō habeant (3).

[Dīxit] sī pācem populus Rōmānus cum Helvētiīs faceret (4) in eam partem itūrōs atque ibi futūrōs Helvētiōs, ubi eōs Caesar cōnstituisset (3) atque esse voluisset (3): sīn bellō persequi persevērāret (4) reminīscerētur (2) et veteris incommodī populī Rōmānī et prīstiņae virtūtis Helvētiōrum.

REM. — The imperative clauses, although they stand for independent clauses in direct discourse, are really dependent on the verb of saying, and follow the rule of the sequence of tenses.

NOTE. — The subjunctive of direct statement, modified in tense according to Rule 5, is retained in indirect statement except in the apodosis of conditional sentences, where it becomes future infinitive.

8.
Employment of Mood in Indirect
Statement (after ὅτι οτ ὡς).
G. 243.

General Principle governing the Employment of Mood in Indirect Statement after on ws.

When the tense of the principal verb (verbum sentiendi vel dēclārandī) is secondary, the mood of all the finite verbs in the clauses immediately or remotely depending upon it is usually changed (in passing from direct to indirect statement) to the optative.

Direct Statement.

έὰν ὑμᾶς ἴδω ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσομαι.

If I see you faint-hearted I shall be cowardly.

Indirect Statement.

έλεξεν ότι, εἰ ἡμᾶς ἴδοι ἀθύμους, κακὸς ἔσοιτο.

He said that, if he should see us faint-hearted, he should be cowardly.

REM. I.—The tense of the verb of the dependent clauses suffers no change.

G. 243. Note 1. H. 935. Exc.—The uniform exception to the above rule is in the case of conditional sentences of the second form, contrary to reality (cf. Rule 21), where the indicatives never change to optatives.

Direct Statement.

εἰ μὴ ὑμεῖς ἦλθετε, ἐπορευόμεθα ἄν.

If you had not come, we should be marching.

Indirect Statement.

άπήγγειλεν ότι εί μη ύμεις ήλθετε, επορευόμεθα άν.

He announced that, if you had not come, we should be marching.

REM.—By what may be called the "principle of vividness," it is common, in Greek, to employ the original language of the speaker where we should expect the optative of indirect statement.

ηπόρουν τί λέγει (instead of λέγοι).

I was at a loss to know what he meant.

H. 933.

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9. Mood in Indirect Question. A. 334. H. 529. I. G. 460. Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. The verb of the interrogative clause is regularly in the subjunctive.

Quaeram quis sit.

I will ask who he is.

Quaesīvī quis esset.

I asked who he was.

REM. I.—The subjunctive is generally explained on the same principle as the subjunctive of indirect statement, but in indirect dubitative questions the subjunctive is, of course, original.

A. 334. d. H. 529. 7. G. 469. Rem. 1. REM. 2.—The indicative in indirect questions occurs only in early Latin and in poetry.

Mood in Indirect Question. G. 241. 3. H. 930.

Indirect questions are introduced by interrogative pronouns and particles. After a primary tense, the verb of the interrogative clause suffers no change; after a secondary tense, it passes regularly into the optative.

έρωτήσω όστις έστίν.

I will ask who he is.

REM. I.—The optative is explained on the same principle as the optative of indirect statement. By the "principle of vividness" the original language of the speaker may be employed in the indirect question, after a secondary tense.

REM. 2. — The indirect interrogatives are commonly employed in Greek, in the indirect question, instead of the direct interrogatives: e.g. ὅπου, ὁπόθεν, ὅποι, ὅπη, ὁπότε, ὅπως, ὅστις, ὁπόσος, ὁπολος, ὁπότερος, instead of ποῦ, πόθεν, ποὶ, πῆ, πότε, πῶς, τίς, πόσος, πολος, πότερος.

REM. 3.—The subjunctive is *not* an attendant of the indirect question, in Greek; where we find it, it is the deliberative or dubitative subjunctive. e.g.—

ούκ οίδα πῶς ἀποδρῶ.

I don't know how I am to escape.

The direct question was, -

πῶς ἀποδρῶ;

How am I to escape?

which, after a secondary tense, by the principle of indirect discourse, would pass into the optative, —

οὐκ ήδειν πῶς ἀποδραίην,

or, by the "principle of vividness," might remain unchanged: -

ούκ ήδειν πως άποδρω.

I did not know how I should escape.

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LATIN.

10. Indirect Request. When a command or request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, or reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in Indirect Request. 1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and remiraling, is regularly expressed by the subjunctive (object-clause) with ut or nē.

Tē rogat ut hōc faciās.

He asks you to do this.

Tē rogāvit ut hōc facerēs.

He asked you to do this.

Suādeō (vōbīs) ut vōsmet servētis.

I advise you to save yourselves.

A. 331. a. H. 535. 11. G. 532. 1 and 2. REM. I. — Iubeō, vetō, and often cōgō, sinō, and volō, are followed by the infinitive.

A. 331. H. 498. G. 546. REM. 2.—The clauses above described (Rule 10, I) are sometimes called substantive clauses of purpose, and treated under the head of final clauses (cf. Rule 14, I).

A. 331. f. H. 498. III. G. 552. 2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by **nē** with the subjunctive, when it is feared something will happen; by **ut** or **nē nōn**, when it is feared that something will not happen.

Vereor në höc faciās.

I fear that you will do this.

Verēbar ut (nē nōn) hōc facerēs.

I feared that you would not do this.

REM. I. — This subjunctive after verbs of fearing is hortatory or optative. The force of the construction is best understood by resolving the sentence into the two independent sentences out of which it grew. Expressed in this way, Vereor; no hoe facias means I fear; may

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10. Indirect Request. When a command or a request is made to depend upon a verb of requesting, advising, reminding, it becomes an indirect request.

Mood in Indirect Request. G. 260. 1. H. 948. 1. Indirect request, after verbs of requesting, advising, and reminding, is regularly expressed, as in English, by the infinitive.

σοῦ δέομαι ταῦτα ποιείν.

I beg you to do this.

σοῦ έδεήθην ταῦτα ποιείν.

I begged you to do this.

συμβουλεύω τιμιν σώζεσθαι.

I advise you to save yourselves.

REM. I. — Instead of the infinitive, the Greek employs ὅπως, with the future indicative, after verbs denoting attention, care, effort.

σκέψασθε όπως ανδρες έσεσθε.

See to it that you be men.

REM. 2.—In the later Greek (e.g. of the New Testament), the clause with **tva** and the subjunctive frequently takes the place of the infinitive. This may be due to the influence of the Latin.

G. 218. H. 887. 2. After verbs of fear or caution, the object of apprehension is expressed by a clause with $\mu\dot{\eta}$, when it is feared that something will happen; with $\mu\dot{\eta}$ où, when it is feared that something will not happen. After a primary tense, we have the subjunctive; after a secondary tense, the optative (historical subjunctive).

φοβοῦμαι μὴ ταῦτα ποιήσης (direct form, μὴ ποίησον ταῦτα).

I fear that you will do this.

έφοβούμην μη οὐ ταῦτα ποιήσειας (direct form, ποίησον ταῦτα).

I feared that you would not do this.

LATIN.

you not do this (i.e. I fear that you will do it); and Vereor; ut hoo factas means I fear; may you do this (i.e. I fear that you will not do it).

REM. 2. — It is impossible to draw a line which separates indirect requests from final clauses. Many grammarians prefer to class clauses with ut or ne after verbs of fear or caution under the general head of final clauses (Rule 14).

ADJECTIVE CLAUSES.

11. Classification of Adjective Clauses. An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent. But since relative clauses, in Latin, often express a purpose, result, cause, condition, or concession, they also modify the *verb* of the principal sentence, and hence may employ the moods in the same way as adverbial clauses.

12. Mood in Relative Clauses. 1. A relative clause, when simply adjective, takes its verb in the indicative.

Vir quem omnēs dīligunt.

A man whom all love (= a man loved by all).

A. 317. 2; 320. a, b, c, d, e, and f. H. 497. 1; 503. I., II. 1. 2. 3; 515. III.; G. 632, 633,

2. Relative clauses often express purpose, result, cause, or concession, or indicate a characteristic of the antecedent; in all these cases they require the subjunctive.

REM. — The relative clauses of cause and concession are characteristic clauses; characteristic clauses are also found after expressions of existence and non-existence; after ūnus and solus; after dīgnus, aptus, and idoneus; after comparatives; and where the antecedent is not otherwise defined.

Légătionem mittere quae (= ut ea) pacem roget. To send an embassy to ask for peace (purpose).

Quis tam stultus est qui (= ut is) ignoret? Who is so simple as not to know (result)?

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Adjective Clauses.

11. Classification of Adjective Clauses. An adjective clause is one which, like an adjective, qualifies a noun. Relative clauses are adjective clauses, because the relative clause, like an adjective, qualifies the antecedent.

Mood in Relative

Clauses. G. 230. H. 909. a.

G. 256, 237, note, and 238. H. 910, 911. 1. Relative clauses regularly require the indicative.

άνηρ ον πάντες φιλούσω.

A man whom all love.

2. Relative clauses, not infrequently, as in Latin, express purpose, result, or cause; but even in such cases require the indicative.

πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ητις (or <math>η) ζητήσει εἰρήνην.
Το send an embassy to ask peace. (Cf. 15, 2, Ex. 3.)

τίς οὖτως εὐήθης ὄστις (or rarely δς) ἀγνοεῖ; Who is so simple as not to know?

LATIN.

Clearchum ad colloquium vocāvit qui (= cum is) māximē Graecōrum honorārī vidērētur.

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to be the most honored of the Greeks (cause).

Sunt qui putant.

There are some who think.

Unus erat qui non adduci posset.

He was the only one who could not be induced.

Liber dignus est qui legătur.

The book is worth reading.

Mālōrēs arborēs caedēbant quam quās ferre miles posset.

They cut larger trees than a soldier could carry.

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

Adverbial clauses, clauses modifying verbs, may be divided into six classes:

T. Final.

IV. Conditional.

II. Consecutive.

V. Concessive.

III. Casual.

VI. Temporal.

14. Final Clauses. A. 317. H. 497. II. G. 545-547.

13.

Classification of Adverbial

Clauses.

r. Final clauses (fīnis, 'end,' to the end that) are such as denote purpose. They are introduced by ut, nē, quō (with comparatives), quōminus (after words and phrases implying hindrance), and by relative words: they require, in most cases, the subjunctive.

Pontem rumpit ne transeatis.

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

Pontem rūpit ne transīrētis.

He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

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Κλέαρχον σύμβουλον παρεκάλεσε ός έδόκει προτιμηθήναι μάλιστα των Ελλήνων.

He summoned Clearchus to the council, since he seemed to be the most honored of the Greeks,

ADVERBIAL CLAUSES.

13. Classification of Adverbial Clauses. Those which modify verbs may be divided into six classes.

I. Final.

IV. Conditional.

II. Consecutive.

V. Concessive.

III. Causal.

VI. Temporal.

14. Final Clauses. G. 216. H. 881. 1. Final clauses are introduced by $\tilde{\nu}\alpha$, $\delta\pi\omega\varsigma$, $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ (neg. $\tilde{\nu}\alpha$ $\mu\dot{\eta}$, $\delta\pi\omega\varsigma$ $\mu\dot{\eta}$, $\dot{\omega}\varsigma$ $\mu\dot{\eta}$): their verb is in the subjunctive, but may be in the optative after a secondary tense.

 $λ\dot{v}$ ει την γέφυραν ώς μη διαβητε.

He breaks down the bridge that you may not cross.

ἔλῦσε τὴν γέφῦραν ὡς μὴ διαβαίητε. He broke down the bridge that you might not cross.

NOTE 1.— The relative, or relative adverb, when denoting purpose, may be resolved into ut or nē with a personal pronoun or a demonstrative word.

Note 2. — Verbs denoting an effort to hinder may take the infinitive. Sölös qui Cimbros intra finis suos ingredi prohibu-

Sõlõs qui Cimbros intra finis suos ingredi prohibuerint.

The only ones who kept the Cimbri from invading their territory.

A. 318.

A. 317. 1. H. 497. II. G. 545.

A. 317. 2. H. 497. I.

A. 300. H. 542. III. Note 2. G. 433.

A. 300.

A. 298. c. H. 544. 2. Note 2. G. 429. 2.

A. 298. c. H. 544. 2. Note 2.

A. 302. H. 546. G. 436.

A. 293 b. H. 549. 3.

- 2. Various ways of expressing purpose:
 - (1) Ut, nē, quō, quōminus with the subjunctive.
 Vēnērunt ut urbem caperent.
 They came to take the city.

(2) Relative clause with the subjunctive.

- Vēnērunt quī urbem caperent.
- (3) Accusative case of the gerund with ad. (Not found with transitive verbs.)

[Vēnērunt ad capiendum urbem.]

- (4) Accusative case of the gerundive with ad.
 Vēnērunt ad urbem capiendam.
- (5) Genitive case of the gerund with causā.
 Vēnērunt urbem capiendī causā.
- (6) Genitive case of the gerundive with causā.
 Vēnērunt urbis capiendae causā.
- (7) The supine in -um (with verbs of motion).
 Vēnērunt urbem captum.
- (8) The future participle (not in Cicero).

 Vēnērunt urbem captūrī.

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G. 216. H. 881. 2. Various ways of expressing purpose: —

(1) ἴνα, ὡς, ὅπως, with subjunctive or optative. ἔρχεται ἴνα τὴν πόλιν ἴδη.

He comes that he may see the city.

 $\hat{\eta}$ λ θ εν ΐνα την πόλιν ΐδοι.

He came that he might see the city.

(3) Relative clause, with future indicative.
πρεσβείαν πέμπειν ἤτις ἐρεῖ.
To send an embassy to speak.

(4) Genitive case of infinitive, with neuter article του. ἔφαγε του μὴ λίμου ἀποθανεω.

He ate in order not to die of hunger.

(5) ὅπως, with future indicative after verbs of effort.(Cf. Rule 10, 1, Rem. 1.)

φρόντιζ ὅπως πράξεις. Consider how you may do it.

(6) The infinitive alone or with ὧστε.
τὴν πόλιν φυλάττειν αὐτοῖς παρέδοσαν.

They handed over to them the city to guard it.

REM. — The negative in all final clauses is μη.

G. 277. 3. H. 969. c.

G. 236. H. 911.

G. 262. 2. H. 960.

G. 217. H. 885.

G. 265 and 266. Note 5. H. 951.

15. Consecutive Clauses. A. 319-H. 500. G. 553, 5541. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are introduced by ut (neg. ut non) and quin (after negative and interrogative expressions), and require the subjunctive.

Rēs tam horribilis erat, ut nēmo dormīret.

The affair was so dreadful that no one slept.

Nēmō est quin putet.

There is no one but thinks.

Quis est quin putet?

Who is there that does not think?

2. The relative clause denoting result (quī = ut ego, ut tū, ut is, etc.) is especially common in Latin.

Nēmō est tam senex quī sē annum nōn putet posse vīvere.

Nobody is so old as not to think that he can live a year.

16. Causal Clauses. A. 321. H. 516, 517. G. 538-541. Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by quod, quia, quoniam, quandō, and cum. Of these, cum always takes the subjunctive, and quandō the indicative. Quod, quia, and quoniam take the indicative when the reason is given on the authority of the speaker or writer, the subjunctive when the reason is stated, not as a fact, but simply on another's (or subjectively on one's own) authority.

Quia mihi dictō audientēs esse nonvultis, ego vobīscum sequar.

Since you are not willing to obey me, I will follow you.

Cyrum īnsimulāvit quod contrā frātrem conjūrāret.

He accused Cyrus (falsely) because (as he said) he was plotting against his brother.

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GREEK.

L5. Consecutive Clauses. G. 266. r. H. 953.

- 1. Consecutive clauses are such as denote result. They are commonly introduced by $\tilde{\omega}\sigma\tau\epsilon$, and generally require the infinitive; negative, $\mu\dot{\eta}$.
 - τὸ πραγμα ἢν οὖτω δεινὸν ὧστε μηδένα κοιμηθῆναι.

The affair was so dreadful that one could not sleep.

G. 237. H. 927.

- 2. If it is desired to indicate that the result has actually followed (i.e. if the fact as a fact, rather than as a result, is to be emphasized), the indicative is used.
 - τὸ πρᾶγμα οὖτω δεινὸν ἢν, ὤστε ὁ βασιλεὺς οὖκ (not μή) ἐκοιμήθη.

The affair was so horrible that the king did not sleep.

16. Causal Clauses.

G. 250, and Note. H. 925, and b. Causal clauses express a cause or reason, and are introduced by $\delta \tau \iota$, $\delta \varsigma$, because, on the ground that; $\epsilon \pi \epsilon \iota$, $\epsilon \pi \epsilon \iota \delta \eta$, $\delta \tau \epsilon$, $\delta \pi \delta \tau \epsilon$, since; and by other conjunctions of similar meaning.

They are regularly joined with the indicative; but when the cause is assigned on another's authority, the optative may be used after a secondary tense.

> ἐπεὶ ἐμοὶ οὐ θέλετε πείσεσθαι, ἐγὼ σὺν ὑμῖν ἔψομαι.

Since you do not choose to obey me, I will follow you.

Τισσαφέρνης διέβαλλεν Κυρον ως τῷ ἀδελφῷ ἐπιβουλεύοι.

Tissaphernes accused Cyrus, on the ground that he was plotting against his brother.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, quod ... confürāret is not only the cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the subjunctive could be explained on the principle stated in Rule 8, Latin and Greek.

REM. I. — Causal clauses introduced by the relative are common in Latin, and require the subjunctive (qui = cum ego, cum tū, cum ille, etc.). They are a variety of the characteristic clause.

Ō fortūnāte adulēscēns, qui (cum tū) Homērum tuae virtūtis praeconem invēneris!

O fortunate youth, since you have obtained a Homer as the herald of your valor!

REM. 2. — Quia with the subjunctive is rare.

17. Of Conditional Sentences. A. 304. a. G. 590, 591. A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause or *then*-clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced by the conjunctions sī, nisi, or sī nōn.

(Cf. Note on opposite page.)

18. Classification under Four Forms. A. 305. H. 507. G. 596. Conditional sentences appear in four forms. They may first be conveniently divided into two classes: (a) Present and Past Conditions; and (b) Future Conditions. The former may be subdivided into Simple Conditions, and Conditions Contrary to Fact; and the latter into Future Conditions More Vivid, and Future Conditions Less Vivid.

NOTE. — In a case like this last example, ώς . . . ἐπιβουλεύοι is not only the alleged cause, but also the subject-matter of the charge, and the optative is accounted for by Rule 8.

REM. — Two other common ways of expressing a cause are: —

1. By a participle (cf. Rule 31).

λέγω τούτου ἔνεκα, βουλόμενος, κ. τ. λ.

This is the reason why I speak, because I wish, &c.

By διά with the infinitive preceded by the the neuter article τό.
 διὰ τὸ ἀγαθὸς εἶναι, τοῦτο ἐποίει.

He used to do this, because he was brave.

17. Of Conditional Sentences. A conditional sentence consists of two parts: the conditional clause or *if*-clause, called the Protasis; and the main clause, called the Apodosis.

The conditional clause is introduced either by $\epsilon \hat{i}$ or $\hat{\epsilon} \acute{a} \nu$ (= $\epsilon \hat{i}$ $\tilde{a} \nu$) also written $\tilde{\eta} \nu$, $\tilde{a} \nu$. $\epsilon \hat{i}$ may be joined with the indicative or optative; $\hat{\epsilon} \acute{a} \nu$ is found only with the subjunctive. The negative of the Protasis is always $\mu \acute{\eta}$, — that of the Apodosis, always $o\mathring{v}$.

Note.—The word Protasis (Greek πρότωσε, from προτείνω, to stretch forth or put forward) means clause which precedes and prepares the way for what follows. Apodosis (Greek ἀπόδοσες, from ἀποδίδωμι, to correspond) means following clause which concludes and completes the sentence. It is very important to notice, although the Protasis comes first, and calls forth the Apodosis, as a question calls forth an answer, yet that the Apodosis is always the main clause.

18. Classification under Four Forms. G. 220. H. 891. Conditional sentences appear in four forms. They may first be conveniently divided into two classes: (a) Present and Past Conditions; and (b) Future Conditions. The former may be subdivided into Simple Conditions, and Conditions Contrary to Fact; and the latter into Future Conditions More Vivid, and Future Conditions Less Vivid.

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19. First Form: Simple Condition. A. 306. H. 508. I. Simple present and past conditions. Nothing implied as to fulfilment.

REM. — For the whole subject of conditions, see G. 596 fol. As the classification adopted is a different one, no references to G. are given under the separate heads.

Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis; Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.

Sī adest, bene est.

If he is present, it is well.

Sī ārae sunt, Dī quoque sunt. If there are altars, there are also Gods.

Sī tonuit, fulgurāvit quoque.

If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. I. — Observe that in conditional sentences of the first class, the conditional *form* is often rather accidental than essential. Nearly the same thought would sometimes be expressed, in case another conjunction — e.g. because, since, as sure as — were substituted for if.

20. Second Form: Condition contrary to Fact. A. 308. H. 510. II. Supposition contrary to fact.
Non-fulfilment implied.
Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Protasis;
Imperfect or Pluperfect Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Sī adesset, bene esset.

If he were present, it were well.

Sī quid peccārēs, dolērēs.

If you were committing any sin, you would suffer (for it).

Sī tonuisset, fulgurāsset.

If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

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GREEK.

19.
First Form:
Simple
Condition.
G. 221.
H. 893.

- I. Simple present and past conditions. Nothing implied as to fulfilment.

 Indicative (any tense) in the Protasis;
 Indicative (any tense) in the Apodosis.
 - $\epsilon i \pi \acute{a} \rho \epsilon \sigma \tau \iota$, $\kappa a \lambda \hat{\omega} s \check{\epsilon} \chi \epsilon \iota$.

 If he is present, it is well.
 - εὶ βωμοί εἰσιν, καὶ Θεοί εἰσιν.
 If there are altars, there are also Gods.
 - εἰ ἐβρόντησε, καὶ ἤστραψεν.
 If it thundered, it also lightened.

REM. I. — Observe that in conditional sentences of the first class (which are probably more common in Greek than in Latin) the conditional form is often rather accidental than otherwise. Nearly the same thought would sometimes be expressed by the substitution for if of some other conjunction; e.g. because, since, as sure as.

20. Second Form: Condition contrary to Fact. G. 222. H. 895. II. Supposition contrary to fact.
Non-fulfilment implied.
Past tense of the Indicative in Protasis;
Past tense of the Indicative with av in Apodosis.

- $\epsilon \hat{i} \pi \alpha \rho \hat{\eta} \nu$, $\kappa \alpha \lambda \hat{\omega} s \hat{a} \nu \epsilon \hat{i} \chi \epsilon \nu$. If he were present, it were well.
- εἴ τι ἡμάρτανες, ἦλγεις ἄν.

 If you were committing any sin, you would suffer (for it).
- εὶ ἐβρόντησεν, ἤστραψεν αν.

 If it had thundered, it would have lightened.

REM. I. — When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present: e.g. si adesset (contrary reality, non adest); bene esset (contrary reality, non bene est). When the pluperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the historical perfect, or by the imperfect: e.g. si potuisset (contrary reality, non poterat, or non potuit); vēnisset (contrary reality non vēnit).

A. 308. b. H. 511. 1. REM. 2. — The indicative, instead of the subjunctive, in the apodosis, signifies that a thing was certain, or was intended, or ought to be.

In amplexus filiae ruēbat, nisi līctorēs obstitissent.

He would certainly have rushed into his daughter's embrace, had not the lictors prevented.

A. 308. c. H. 511. 2. REM. 3. — Verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, possibility, or duty, when used in the apodosis of a condition contrary to fact are regularly put in the indicative.

Id facere potuit, sī voluisset.

He could have done it, if he had wished.

III. A distinct supposition of a future case.

Future Indicative (or, for completed action, Future Perfect Indicative) in Protasis;

Future Indicative in Apodosis.

Sī aderit, bene erit.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

Sī quid peccāveris, dolēbis.

If you shall have committed any sin, you will suffer (for it).

REM. — This variety of condition, it will be observed, shows the same use of the moods (indicative in both clauses) as the first form.

NOTE. — In H. Future Conditions are divided into possible and impossible conditions.

Third Form: Future Condition more Vivid. A. 307. 1. [H. 508.]

REM. I. — When the imperfect is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the present or imperfect: e.g. εἰ παρῆν (contrary reality, οὐ πάρεστι); καλῶς ἄν εἶχεν (contrary reality, οὐκ ἔχει καλῶς). When the acrist is used in both clauses (or in either clause), the contrary reality would be expressed by the acrist: e.g. εἰ ἤδυνήθη (contrary reality, οὐκ ἤδυνήθη); ἦλθεν ἄν (contrary reality, οὐκ ἦδυνήθη).

G. M. 420 and 423. REM. 2.— αν is sometimes not found in the Apodosis of a conditional sentence of the second form, with impersonal verbs and expressions denoting necessity, propriety, &c. (e.g. εδει, ἐχρῆν, χρῆν, δίκαιον ῆν, &c., with the infinitive), if the chief force of the apodosis falls on the infinitive. If, however, the chief force falls on the necessity or propriety of the act, rather than on the act itself, αν is used with the main verb.

Third Form:
Future Condition more
Vivid.
G. 223.
[H. 898.]

III. A distinct supposition of a future case.

Subjunctive with $\epsilon \acute{a} \nu \ (\ddot{\eta} \nu, \ \ddot{a} \nu)$ in Protasis;

Future Indicative, or Imperative, or some other expression implying futurity, in Apodosis.

έὰν παρῆ, καλῶς ἔξει.

If he be (shall be) present, it will be well.

έάν τι άμάρτης, άλγήσεις.

If you (shall) commit any sin, you will suffer (for it).

REM. I.—The subjunctive with ids in the Protasis often gives place, for greater vividness, to the future indicative with id.

εί πάρεσται, καλώς έξει.

G. M. 87.

REM. 2.—The difference between the present and the aorist is the usual one, the present denoting an action going on, and the aorist simply the occurrence.

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Fourth
Form:
Future Condition less
Vivid.
A. 307. 2.
[H. 509.]

IV. A supposition referring to the future, but expressed less vividly.

Present Subjunctive (Perfect Subjunctive for completed action) in Protasis;

Present Subjunctive in Apodosis.

Sī adsit, bene sit.

If he should be present, it would be well.

Sī quid peccāveris, doleās.

If you should commit (have committed) any fault, you would suffer (for it).

23. Mixed Forms. A. 311. d. H. 511. Mixed forms are much less common in Latin than in Greek. Yet we find examples like the following:—

Dies deficiet (3), si velim (4) causam dicere.

Day would (will) fail me, if I should wish to defend the cause.

24. Condition Implied. A. 310. The condition is sometimes involved in a participle, or in some other word, and sometimes is merely implied.

Non potestis, omnia voluptate dirigentes, virtutem retinere.

You cannot, if you arrange everything according to pleasure, retain your manhood.

REM. — The Subjunctive of Modesty and the Potential Subjunctive (see 1) are conclusions with the condition merely implied.

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22.
Fourth
Form:
Future Condition less
Vivid.
G. 224.
[H. 900.]

IV. A supposition referring to the future, but expressed less vividly.

Optative in the Protasis;

Optative with $\mathbf{\tilde{a}}\mathbf{\nu}$ in the Apodosis.

- εἰ παρείη, καλῶς ἄν ἔχοι.
 If he were present, it would be well.
- εἴ τι ἁμαρτάνοις, ἀλγοίης ἄν.

 If you should commit any fault, you would suffer for it.

REM. — In H. Future Conditions are divided into Future Supposition with more probability and Future Supposition with less probability.

Mixed Forms. G. 227. H. 901. a. To express various shades of meaning, the third and fourth forms are sometimes blended, — the Protasis taking one, the Apodosis the other.

 $\dot{\epsilon}\dot{a}\nu$ $\pi a\rho\hat{\eta}$ (3), $\kappa a\lambda\hat{\omega}s$ $\dot{a}\nu$ $\dot{\epsilon}\chi o\iota$ (4). If he shall be present, it would be well.

εἰ παρείη (4), καλῶς ἔξει (3).

24. Condition Implied. G. 226. H. 902, 903. The condition is frequently involved in a participle, or is simply implied.

REM.—The Potential Optative (see 1) is a conclusion with the condition merely implied.

25. General or Indefinite Conditions. Conditional sentences in Latin, as in Greek, may contain the statement of a general truth, or may imply repeated action. General Conditions are, however, as a rule, not distinguished from Particular Conditions in form. 25. General or Indefinite Conditions. General Conditions occur in all four classes; but only Present and Past General Conditions have a formula in any respect different from that of Particular Conditions.

Compare the examples, -

A.
$$\begin{cases} \vec{\epsilon} \acute{\alpha} \nu \ \tau \iota \ \lambda \acute{\alpha} \beta \eta, \ \delta \acute{\omega} \sigma \epsilon \iota. \\ & \text{If he receives anything, he will give it.} \\ \vec{\epsilon} \iota \ \tau \iota \ \lambda \acute{\alpha} \beta o \iota, \ \delta o \acute{\iota} \eta \ \mathring{\alpha} \nu. \\ & \text{If he should receive anything, he would give it.} \end{cases}$$
 with the following: —
$$B. \begin{cases} \vec{\epsilon} \acute{\alpha} \nu \ \tau \iota \ \lambda \acute{\alpha} \beta \eta, \ \delta \acute{\iota} \delta \omega \sigma \iota. \\ & \text{If he receives anything, he (uniformly) gives it.} \\ \vec{\epsilon} \iota \ \tau \iota \ \lambda \acute{\alpha} \beta o \iota, \ \vec{\epsilon} \delta \acute{\iota} \delta o \nu. \\ & \text{If he received anything, he (uniformly) gave it.} \end{cases}$$

The first pair are Particular, the second, General Conditions. The first refer to a supposed single case; the second imply repeated action, or contain a general truth. In the first, $\epsilon \hat{i}$ or $\hat{\epsilon} \hat{a} \nu$ really means "if in a particular instance"; in the second, "whenever."

It is further to be observed, in the second pair of examples, that:—

- 1. The mood of the Protasis is determined, not by considering the nature of the condition (whether it is taken for granted, probable, or possible), but by the tense of the Apodosis, according to the principle of the sequence of moods (Rule 5).
- 2. The verb of the Apodosis is in the indicative, and is a form expressing repeated action.
- 3. The Protases in both pairs of examples are identical; the verbs of the Apodosis, regularly in the indicative, and expressing repeated action, are what mark the second pair of conditions as general.

26. Use of Moods in General Conditional Sentences. A. 309. H. 508. 5. When general conditions are distinguished from particular, they require the Indicative, except with the indefinite second person singular. In writers after Cicero, however, the Subjunctive is used, as in Greek.

27.
Rypothetical
(or Conditional) Relative Sentences.
A. 316.
H. 507. 2.

Conditional relative sentences, or sentences in which the relative may be resolved into sī with a personal or demonstrative or indefinite pronoun, are found in Latin. They require, however, no extended illustration.

26.

Use of Moods in General Conditional Sentences. G. 225. H. 894, General conditions require: -

1. For present time, -

Subjunctive with $\dot{\epsilon} \dot{\alpha} \nu$ in Protasis; Present indicative in Apodosis.

2. For past time, -

Optative with $\epsilon \hat{i}$ in Protasis; Imperfect indicative in Apodosis.

Cf., for examples, Rule 27, B.

REM. — An important application of the principles just stated will be seen in the explanation of the employment of moods in temporal clauses. (Cf. Rule 29, 2, p. 48.)

Hypothetical (or Conditional) Relative Sentences. Conditional relative sentences are relative sentences implying a condition. The conditions involved may be particular or general, and differ in no respect from the cases already explained, but are sufficiently illustrated by the following examples:—

A. — Particular Conditions.

- 1. \hat{a} μ $\hat{\eta}$ οἶδa, οὐδ $\hat{\epsilon}$ οἴομαι ϵἰδ $\hat{\epsilon}$ ναι =
 - εί τινα μη οίδα, οὐδε οίομαι είδεναι.

What I do not know (if I do not know a thing) I do not think I know.

- 2. οὐκ ἀν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν ἃ μὴ ἡπιστάμεθα =
 - εί τινα μὴ ἠπιστάμεθα, οὐκ αν ἐπεχειροῦμεν πράττειν.

We would not undertake to do what we did not understand.

δ ἃν βούληται, δώσω =
 ἐάν τι βούληται, δώσω.

I will give him (once) whatever he may wish.

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CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

A. — Particular Suppositions.

I. PRESENT AND PAST.

- 1. Simple suppositions nothing implied as to fulfilment. Present and past tenses of the indicative.
- 2. Supposition contrary to fact - non-fulfilment implied. tenses of the subjunctive; imperfect for present time, pluperfect for past time.

II. FUTURE.

- I. Supposition expressed vividly (by shall or will). Future indicative (future perfect in the Protasis to express completed action).
- 2. Supposition expressed less vividly (by should or would). Present subjunctive (perfect in the protasis, if a completed action is to be expressed).

B. — General Suppositions.

Not usually distinguished from particular suppositions. When distinguished, take the indicative, except in the indefinite second person singular and in late writers. Digitized by Google

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4. ὅ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν = $\epsilon \mathring{i}$ τι βούλοιτο, δοίην ἄν.

I would give him (once) whatever he might wish.

B. — General Conditions.

 δ αν βούληται, δίδωμι = ἐάν τι βούληται, δίδωμι.

I (uniformly) give him whatever he wants.

2. ὅ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν = εἴ τι βούλοιτο, ἐδίδουν.

I (uniformly) gave him whatever he wanted.

CLASSIFICATION OF CONDITIONAL SENTENCES.

A. — Particular Suppositions.

I. PRESENT AND PAST.

1. Simple supposition — nothing implied as to fulfilment.

Protasis: Present or past tense of indicative.

Apodosis: Present or past tense of indicative.

2. Supposition contrary to fact—non-fulfilment implied.

Protasis: Past tense of indicative impf. for present time.

laor. impf. or plupf. for past time.

Apodosis: Past tense of indicative with de { impf. for present time.

aor. impf. or plupf. for past time.

II. FUTURE.

1. Expressed vividly (by shall or will).

Protasis: Subjunctive with ide.

Apodosis: Future indicative.

2. Expressed less vividly (by should or would).

Protasis: Optative with al.

Apodosis: Optative with av.

B. — General Suppositions.

Protasis: can with the subjunctive after a present tense.

et with the optative after a past tense.

Apodosis: Present or past tense of the indicative.

28. Concessive Clauses. A. 313. H. 515. G. 605-611. V. Concessive clauses are introduced by quamquam, quamvīs, licet, ut, cum (although). Of these conjunctions, the first is regularly joined with the indicative, the others with the subjunctive.

REM. — In concessive clauses the indicative is used if a fact is conceded, otherwise the subjunctive.

Quamquam ad multam noctem pügnābant, tamen hostēs non fūgāvērunt.

Although they fought till late at night, they did not put the enemy to flight.

Licet omnës in më terrörës periculaque impendeant, tamen id non faciam.

Though all terrors and perils may menace me, I will not do it.

In the first example an admitted fact is conceded; in the second, the concession is something purely imaginary.

REM. 2.—Concession is also expressed by etsi, etlamsi, and tametsi. Concessive clauses of this kind correspond with the four classes of conditional clauses (see 18). For cum concessive, see 29, 2, Rem.

REM. 3.—Concession is often expressed by a participle, or by an ablative absolute.

VI. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions: —

1. ut, when, postquam, after that, with the indicative.

ubi prīmum, simul ac, as soon as, quoties, as often as, with the indicative.

REM. — These conjunctions are commonly used with the perfect indicative or the historical present.

29. Temporal Clauses. A. 324. H. 518. G. 562.

28. Concessive Clauses.

V. Concessive clauses are introduced by $\epsilon i \kappa a i$, $\epsilon a \nu \kappa a i$, $\epsilon v \kappa a i$,

REM. — Concession is often expressed by the participle, with which καίπερ is sometimes used.

29. Temporal Clauses. H. 1055. VI. 1. Temporal clauses are introduced by the following conjunctions:—

ότε, όπότε, ἡνίκα, ώς, — when.

 $\epsilon \pi \epsilon i$, $\epsilon \pi \epsilon \iota \delta \eta$, \rightarrow after, when.

πρίν, — before.

έως, έστε, έν φ, — as long as, until, whilst.

quam diū, as long as, with the indicative.

A. 325, 326. H. 521. G. 580, fol. 2. cum, when, with the indicative or subjunctive.

REM. — Cum takes the indicative when it expresses time; i.e. when the cum clause dates the action of the main clause. When it does not so much date as describe the circumstances under which the action of the main clause takes place, it takes the subjunctive. Cum in narration is usually followed by the imperfect or pluperfect subjunctive; in the comparatively few cases in which the indicative is used, the idea of time is prominent, being frequently made especially so by the expressions tum...cum, cum prīmum, etc. In causal and concessive clauses with cum, the meaning since or although is given by the context, as when the ablative absolute expresses cause or concession. When cum means whenever, it takes the indicative, being in reality a general condition. When the clauses are inverted, so that the cum clause is really the main clause, cum takes the indicative.

A. 327. H. 520. G. 576, fol. 3. priusquam, before that, before, with the indicative or subjunctive.

A. 328. H. 519. G. 573, fol. dum,
4. donec, while, until, with indicative or subjunctive.
quoad,

REM. I.—With antequam and priusquam, dum, donec, and quoad, the indicative is used when they introduce an independent fact, the subjunctive when the temporal clause merely qualifies the main clause.

REM. 2. — Antequam and priusquam take the present or future perfect when they refer to future time, rarely the present subjunctive.

REM. 3. — **Dum** meaning while takes the present indicative (historical present) to indicate continued action in past time, if that time is not contrasted with any other. **Dum** meaning as long as is used with the imperfect or perfect indicative. **Dum** denoting purpose, doubt, or futurity takes the subjunctive.

Use of Moods in Temporal Clauses. G. 231, 239, 240. H. 913, 921, 924. 2. All these conjunctions (not including $\pi\rho\dot{w}$) are followed by the indicative when they denote a definite point of time; when they denote some time (not fixed or known in the future), or refer to a number of occasions, they introduce semi-conditional clauses, and furnish, in the moods employed, a precise parallel to them.

EXAMPLES.

I. Pompēius ut equitātum suum pulsum vīdit, aciē excessit (B. C. iii. 94).

When Pompey saw his cavalry beaten, he left the field (of battle).

2. Cum Caesar in Galliā esset, lītterae ad eum referēbantur (B. G. ii. 1).

When Cæsar was in Gaul, letters were brought to him.

Quem quidem cum ex urbe pellēbam, hōc prōvidēbam animō (Cic. Cat. iii. 7).

When I was trying to force him from the city, I was looking forward to this.

Tum cum in Asiā rēs māgnās permultī āmīserant, scīmus Rōmae solūtiōne impedītā fidem concidisse.

At that time when a great many people had lost large fortunes in Asia, we know that because payments were made difficult, credit fell at Rome (Cic. Man. 7).

REM. — In the first example under 2 the cum clause defines the circumstances without special regard to *time*; in the second and third time is the most prominent idea; in the third the tum makes it especially clear that this is the case.

3. Neque ante dīmīsit eum quam fidem dedit adulēscēns (Livy xxxix. 10).

She did not let the young man go till he gave a pledge.

Antequam hominēs nefāriī dē meō adventū audīre potuissent, in Macedoniam perrēxī (Cic. Planc. 41).

Before those evil men could learn of my coming, I arrived in Macedonia.

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The following is the formula: —

After a primary tense, $\tilde{a}\nu$ is annexed to the conjunction, generally forming one word with it, and the verb of the temporal clause is in the subjunctive. After a secondary tense, the verb of the temporal clause is in the optative, without $\tilde{a}\nu$.

ταῦτα ἐποίουν μέχρι σκότος ἐγένετο.
They did this until darkness came on (definite time).

όταν ἄπαντα ἀκούσης, κρίνον. When you (shall) have heard all, judge.

ἐπειδη δέ τι ἐμφάγοιεν, ἀνίσταντο.

After they had eaten something, they would rise up.

όπότε ὧρα εἶη ἀρίστου, ἀνέμενεν αὐτοὺς ἔστε ἐμφάγοιεν.

Whenever it was time for breakfast, he used to wait for them until they are something.

REM. — πρίν, besides the constructions mentioned above, may take the infinitive in any tense, and must take the infinitive in certain cases.

REM. — In the first example two facts are stated; in the second the act of the antequam clause is ideal or imaginary, merely defining the main clause.

Dum haec geruntur, hostës vënërunt.

While this was going on, the enemy came.

Exspectās fortasse dum dicat (Tusc. ii. 7).

You are waiting perhaps for him to say.

REM. — In the first example two facts are stated; in the second the act of the dum clause is ideal or imaginary, and may never have taken place.

30. Infinitive. A. 270. and 296. H. 538. and 542. G. 426. The infinitive and the gerund, taken together, make up all the cases of a verbal noun (cf. English verbal nouns in -ing); e.g. —

Nom. Errare humanum est.

To err is human.

Gen. Errandī cupidus est homō.

Man is desirous of sinning.

Dat. Errandō aptus est homō.

Man is inclined to sinning.

Acc. { Errāre homō amat. Ad errandum homō aptus est.

Man is inclined to sinning.

Abl. Errandō homō miser fit.

By sinning man becomes wretched.

31. Participle. A. 292. H. 549. G. 667. The participle, in Latin, may be the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in most of its varieties; e.g. —

Of an Adjective Clause: -

Epistulam sibi commīssam = (quae commīssa erat) dētulit.

He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

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30. Infinitive G. 264. H. 959. The infinitive joined with the neuter article may be used in all the cases; e.g.—

Nom. τὸ ἁμαρτάνεω.
(The act of) sinning.

Gen. τοῦ ἀμαρτάνειν.
Of sinning.

Dat. τῷ ἀμαρτάνειν. .
Το or for sinning.

Acc. $(\tau \delta)$ $\dot{a}\mu a \rho \tau \dot{a}\nu \epsilon \iota \nu$. (The act of) sinning.

31. Participle.G. 277.
H. 968–969.

The participle, in Greek, is constantly employed as the equivalent of the adjective clause, and of the adverbial clause in all its varieties; e.g.—

Of an Adjective Clause: -

ἀπέδωκε τὴν ἐαυτῷ ἐπιτετραμμένην ἐπιστολήν. He delivered the letter which had been intrusted to him.

Of Adverbial Clauses: -

Final.

Alexander ad Iovem Ammonem pergit, consultūrus (= ut consulat) de origine sua.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult (the oracle) about his origin.

Causal.

Nihil affīrmō mihi ipse diffīdēns (= quia diffīdō).

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Conditional.

Ad cēnam vocātus (= sī vocātus erō) ībō. I shall go to supper, if I am invited.

Concessive.

Non statim poenīs adficiuntur, cotidie delinquentēs (= cum delinquant).

They are not at once punished, although daily at fault.

Temporal.

Hōs ego dīgrediēns lacrimīs adfābar obortīs (dīgrediēns = cum dīgrederer).

As I went away, I addressed them with flowing tears.

Final.

Of Adverbial Clauses: -

'Αλέξανδρος εἰς 'Αμμωνος εδραν ερχεται ἐπερησόμενος περὶ τῆς αὐτοῦ γενέσεως.

Alexander goes to Jupiter Ammon to consult (the oracle) about his origin.

Causal.

οὐδὲν λέγω ἐμαυτῷ ἀπιστῶν.

I affirm nothing, because I distrust myself.

Conditional.

 $\begin{array}{l} \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \check{\epsilon} \chi \omega, \\ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \chi o \nu, \\ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \check{\epsilon} \sigma \chi o \nu, \\ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \check{\epsilon} \sigma \chi o \omega, \\ \epsilon \mathring{a} \nu \ \ \epsilon \chi \omega, \\ \epsilon \mathring{a} \nu \ \ \sigma \chi \hat{\omega}, \\ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \check{\epsilon} \chi o \iota \mu \iota, \\ \epsilon \mathring{\iota} \ \ \sigma \chi o \acute{\iota} \eta \nu, \end{array} \right\} \ = \ \check{\epsilon} \chi \omega \nu \ \tau \iota, \\ \left\{ \begin{array}{l} \delta \mathring{\iota} \delta \omega \mu \iota. \\ \mathring{\epsilon} \delta \mathring{\iota} \delta \omega \nu \ \ \mathring{a} \nu. \\ \delta \mathring{\omega} \sigma \omega. \\ \delta \mathring{\omega} \sigma \omega. \\ \delta \mathring{\iota} \delta o \mathring{\iota} \eta \nu \ \ \mathring{a} \nu. \\ \delta o \mathring{\iota} \eta \nu \ \ \mathring{a} \nu. \\ \delta o \mathring{\iota} \eta \nu \ \ \mathring{a} \nu. \end{array} \right.$

Concessive.

καίπερ άμαρτάνοντες καθ' έκάστην, οὐκ αὐτίκα δίκην διδόασιν.

They are not at once punished, though daily at fault.

REM. — The concessive participle is commonly accompanied by καίπερ.

Temporal.

All participles denote this relation, and the Greek distinguishes very accurately by the use of the present, perfect or aorist, and future participle, whether the action denoted by the participle is represented as occurring simultaneously with, previous to, or subsequent to, that of the principal verb of the sentence.

ταθτα ἀκούσας ἀπήλαυνεν.

When he had heard this, he rode away.

Temporal.

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ταῦτα εἰπὼν ἐπαύσατο (λέγων).

When he had said this, he ceased (speaking).

NOTE. — The aorist participle in Greek may very fitly be called a preliminary participle. The Greek uses the tense of the participle with great accuracy, often employing the aorist when we, in English, should employ a present participle. E.g.—

English. Coming up, he asked his name.

Greek. προσελθων ήρετο τὸ ὅνομα αὐτοῦ.

The various uses of the participle above enumerated all come under the head of circumstantial; *i.e.* the participle adds a circumstance, more or less important, modifying the principal verb or predicate of the sentence. If this circumstance is essential to the thought, and cannot be omitted without taking away the leading idea from the sentence, the participle is said to be supplementary.

The supplementary participle is used most frequently after the following verbs:—

- 1. Verbs of judging, feeling, knowing, etc., as the equivalent of a substantive clause. (Cf. Rule 7. 4.)
 - 2. Verbs of beginning, continuing, enduring, ceasing, etc.

NOTE. — The supplementary participle is especially common with λανθάνω, παύομαι, τυγχάνω, φθάνω.

ελάθομεν ἀφικόμενοι.

We arrived without knowing it.

έπαύσατο λέγων.

He ceased speaking.

ἔτυχε παρών.

He happened to be present.

φθάνουσιν τοὺς πολεμίους γενόμενοι ἐπὶ τῷ ἄκρῳ. They anticipate the enemy in gaining the height.

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